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# The JOURNAL of GEOGRAPHY

VOLUME XXXIV DECEMBER, 1935 NUMBER 9

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Published by A. J. Nystrom & Co., for The National Council of Geography Teachers
George J. Miller, *Editor*

# *The* JOURNAL *of* GEOGRAPHY

*A MAGAZINE FOR SCHOOLS*

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The subscription price is $2.50 a year, payable in advance. The price of single copies is 35 cents. Postage prepaid on subscriptions from the United States, Canal Zone, Republic of Panama, Puerto Rico, Cuba, Virgin Islands of the United States, Dominican Republic, Philippines, Guam, Samoan Islands, Hawaii, Mexico, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Republic of Honduras, Salvador, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, Spain and Spanish Colonies. For Canada add for postal and tariff 45¢ on annual subscriptions (total $2.95). On single copies add 5¢ (total 40¢). All other countries in the Postal Union add for postage 27¢ on annual subscriptions (total $2.77), on single copies 3¢ (total 38¢).

*The Journal* is the official organ of the National Council of Geography Teachers and is sent to all members of the organization. The annual dues, $2.00, are payable to the *Journal of Geography*. Extra postage rates for copies sent to foreign countries should be added to the membership dues.

Patrons are requested to make all remittances payable to the *Journal of Geography*, in postal or express money orders or bank drafts.

Members and subscribers who wish to continue receiving the *Journal* must send remittances promptly to assure the volume being complete.

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Send manuscript and books for notice or review to the *Editor*.
Send orders for back numbers to *Journal of Geography*.

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*Published monthly except June, July and August*

PUBLICATION OFFICES: 450-454 AHNAIP STREET, MENASHA, WISCONSIN

Business Correspondence, Membership Dues, and Subscriptions may be sent to Publication office or to

**A. J. NYSTROM AND COMPANY**
PUBLISHERS, JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY
3333 ELSTON AVENUE, CHICAGO

Entered as second-class matter January 15, 1919 at the post office of Menasha, Wisconsin, under the Act of March 3, 1879.

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VOLUME XXXIV DECEMBER, 1935 NUMBER 9

# THE ACTIVITY PROGRAM AS A MEANS OF VITALIZING THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY*

JOHN J. LOFTUS
Assistant Superintendent, New York City

As a basis for discussing the place of the Activity Program in teaching geography we might accept Edwin H. Reeder's simple definition of geography as "the study of human responses to earth controls," which refers to "the effects in human life and work which are caused by man's efforts to control and modify his environment." From this point of view the two dominating ideals are (1) "to arouse and maintain a permanent enlightened interest in geography" and (2) "to make pupils intelligently sensitive to the hows and whys of a changing world."

## PURPOSEFUL PLANNING

Altho the current trend seems to be towards "social studies" this discussion views geography as a separate study with its own subject matter, interests, objectives, and techniques.

The idea of pupils' activities is not new. The New York geography syllabus recommends the use of projects and activities and specifies definite activities and "units of work" in connection with the work of each grade. The syllabus is quite definite in specifying that activities are to be purposeful, that they are to utilize the many possibilities of useful correlation, and that the projects should be supplemented by intelligent use of planned excursions, visual aids and research. A definition of activity programs presents difficulties. In the Twenty-third Year Book of the National Society of Education, Part II, entitled "The Activity Movement" there are listed forty-two definitions and descriptions by well-known educators. Among the many local public schools which are trying out various forms of activity programs there are varying conceptions ranging

* Presented at a meeting of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education.

from isolated, unrelated, insignificant activities to integrated, rationalized constructive programs based on a consistent philosophy. The construction of miniature replicas, which feature many of the activity programs, is likely to be ineffective if these are regarded as ends instead of means. The same criticism may be made of certain exhibits and pageants if they are not intelligently planned. Some teachers make a project curriculum or activity program a group of devices for motivating or applying conventional subject matter. Others assuming that subject matter is intrinsic in the experiences of their program have invited adverse criticism by slighting or even neglecting important useful subject matter and skills.

The *first* thought that occurs to me in the matter of vitalizing teaching in an activity program is the significance of "objectives." In the best type of Activity Program there is a definite controlling teacher consciousness of cardinal objectives and also the special objectives in the syllabus together with purposeful planning to realize the objectives selected as the basis for any unit of work. The New York State syllabus names six cardinal objectives: (1) social relationships, (2) self-expression, (3) critical judgment, (4) worthwhile activities, (5) knowledge and skills, (6) health. The National Education Association promulgated seven major objectives of education in 1918 as the fundamental right of every American child: (1) habitual health, (2) desirable home membership, (3) intelligent and faithful citizenship, (4) vocational insight and guidance, (5) wise use of leisure time, (6) training in ethical character, (7) fundamental tools of learning and social intercommunication. Geography lends itself readily to the realization of some phases of these objectives at many points. The more specific objectives are indicated in the preliminary statements of the official course of study and the special topics for each grade.

A real problem must be faced with regard to these objectives. New teachers seem to be aware of the objectives that represent their fundamental problems and obligations in teaching any subject. Surveys have repeatedly indicated that many teachers are not conscious at the time of planning a lesson of a real purpose in teaching that lesson. They will sometimes read back into a lesson certain values to be gotten from it, but the values were not planned for. They were fortuitous rather than purposed. If a teacher teaches without objectives her work is likely to be barren and pointless. Her work is analogous to building a house without a set of plans. Yet too many teachers simply take the next topic in a syllabus or

the next lesson in a textbook disregarding the freedom and flexibility recommended in both.

The very nature of the activity program prompts teachers to analyze objectives and values in selecting units of work. Being interested more in child development than in subject matter they are more likely to be cognizant of the larger cardinal objectives of character or citizenship in planning an activity than is the conventional teacher. In recording progress and evaluating results it seems more logical in an activity program to note evidences of growth of judgment, initiative, appreciation, interest, change of attitude, and similar outcomes than in the older type of school in which tests and other measurements are chiefly in terms of information memorized or simple skills acquired. Aimless teaching in an activity program would be more futile and harmful than in the conventional school.

## CLEAR CONCEPTS

My *second* thought on the vitalization of geography teaching is the definiteness and concreteness of concepts in an activity program. Children see or model land and water forms; they make sand-table representations or build miniature replicas; they dramatize the customs of people; they pretend to plant, to harvest, to buy and sell, to travel, to fish, to mine, and simulate other activities. They visit museums and parks and utilize visual aids regularly. When they use geographical terms, the words are familiar to them. Tepees, wigwams, igloos, pueblos, caravans, cases, islands, docks, plantations, are realities not mere words. The other type makes for mere verbal memory and confusion. Recently I was asked to lecture to a group on the "Inductive Method in Teaching Geography." This group of students was disposed to smile at so "old-fashioned" a topic. Yet it was brought out in the lecture that both adults and children do frequently get concepts inductively. There is a technique of inductive learning that should be mastered. There is much need for such technique in teaching children and much lack of expertness among teachers in attempting to do it. I asked the students how they would develop such a familiar geographical concept as "island." One student said she would not develop it at all. Children would know what an island is. Yet if you asked 3B children in New York for an illustration they would be quite likely to say Coney Island. Coney Island is the only island they know—a land form which is not an island at all and certainly not typical of the desired concept.

Teachers tend to "explain" and assume that explanations give concepts. It would be worth while to do some experimenting to study just what certain familiar geographical terms mean to children. You all know this definition: "The equator is a menagerie lion running around the middle of the earth," and this pledge of allegiance: "I pledge a legion to my flag and to the Republicans for which it stands—one nation invisible, with liberty and gestures for all." The same situation comes up as an almost insuperable obstacle in teaching problem solution in arithmetic.

Here are twenty familiar terms from your geography syllabus.

GEOGRAPHY VOCABULARY

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| BASIN | INTERIOR | PROVINCE | RIDGE |
| BREAKWATER | MAINLAND | QUARRY | SMELT |
| COASTAL PLAIN | MILL | REEF | SUBURB |
| DENSE | OASIS | RESOURCE | TRAIL |
| DRAIN | PALISADE | REVOLUTION | YIELD |

What do they mean to an ordinary group of children? A class that has actually manufactured paper on which you can write, or woven real cloth, knows just what a mill is. Children who make relief maps in sand or other media know about basins, breakwaters, drainage. If you construct or dramatize a caravan, an oasis is real to you. To quote the words of Reeder once more "you feel concepts." You can teach a parrot to say the words, but real experiences build up emotional as well as factual content. Here are some convincing typical statements made by 5th year children in Public School 73, Brooklyn:

INDIAN LIFE by Ernest Zamparelli

We studied about Indian life—how they live today. Don't think Indians are wild and holler as if they are crazy. They are calm and peaceful. We studied the meanings of many signs. We learned many Indian names and their meanings. My Indian name is KE-WE-WA which means our great chief. Indians make their tepees out of skin. We also learned how to make Indian costumes. We learned some dances and songs. I hope to see some Indians some day.

INDIAN LIFE by Rose Marie Scalfo

Why I like the Indians is that they have more self-control than you and I and have very straight backs and they are very dignified. They live in a tent called tepee. When the Indians get up in the morning they sing a Sun Rise song to the Sun-God. We learned many things about the Indians—we learned Indian signs—how they plant corn—how they sing to the Sun God. We put designs on our costumes for our play. I will never forget the Indians.

WHY I LIKED INDIAN LIFE by Millie Zarto

The first thing that I like is that the Indians live in a wigwam instead of a house. They have beautiful designs outside the wigwams. Every design that they have means something. I like the songs they have—these are some of them. When I walk, E-Hunga, Wake Arise, Corn Dance, Lullaby, Farewell to the Warriors.

### CAUSAL RELATIONS

A *third* thought on vitalizing the teaching of geography has to do with studying causal relations. Whenever pupils build or dramatize or exhibit, numerous problems and questions are raised and allotted to committees for guided research and report. Children naturally raise numerous questions on all sorts of natural and social phenomena and situations. It is the very essence of a good activity program both to stimulate and to satisfy this natural propensity. How many teachers do it in the conventional pattern? How many teachers get beyond the boundaries of the class textbook and the day's lesson? Of course I recognize a possibility of poor teaching in an activity program. If children's initiative and curiosity are suppressed, if children imitate rather than create, if their activities are prescribed rather than suggested the outcomes will be undesirable. At the same time discussion is almost inevitable. The problems are children's rather than adult problems and therefore vital ones.

### INDIVIDUALIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

A *fourth* thought is the problem of providing definitely for a desirable body of information and skills to be acquired by *all* the children with enrichment for the brighter pupils. In the best current types of activity programs separate provision is made for formal teaching of these so-called "fundamentals" or "minimum essentials." Certainly the acquisition of necessary information or skills is a normal activity in life. Anyone who gets a job has to equip himself with certain required information and skills promptly and expertly if he wants to hold the job. There should be no difficulty about setting aside time for similar demands in an activity program. It is true that many of the fundamental requirements can be mastered by bright pupils in the original learning situation in an activity program. Diagnostic tests should be made to determine not only which children failed to get them but in what particular elements they failed. In Districts 32 and 34 in Brooklyn I gave the Metropolitan Achievement tests annually and grafed the results. I also charted the answers to each question to locate the difficulties. One year we found that interpretation of maps and map symbols was quite inadequate. Next year we did much better because of concentration on this one difficulty. A similar analysis can be made for each child whose score is below the grade norm. For those items of the term's work that are exclusively memoriter the bright pupils can be used to coach and test the weakest until they have mastered

the certain specified items, using the Winnetka or Dalton techniques.

### ECONOMY IN SCHEDULING

A *fifth* thought is the possibility of economics of time and energy in the activity program. In most "progressive" schools outside New York, the teacher has great freedom in selecting topics, planning a schedule and in promoting children. Usually the time schedule is not prescribed. It is worked out each day in a discussion period and placed on the blackboard. Often the activities for a week or a month are posted together with committee and individual assignments. In New York, unless the assistant superintendent authorizes a modification of the course of study or time schedule the teacher is responsible for official requirements. However, she may schedule geography next to arithmetic or English or history and combine as well as correlate. If, for example, she combines a thirty-minute period of geography with a thirty-minute period of English, the English problems may deal with geography topics for the whole hour and the geography activity may include definite problems in vocabulary or expression. In this way a teacher can actually increase the time allotment for both subjects.

### CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

A *final* thought is the opportunity for character development and the realization of all the values enumerated in the introduction to the course of study. Active children with worthwhile purposes are happy, useful children. They build up temporary and permanent interests and attitudes. They learn to work together. They respect the point of view of others and accept group decisions. They have vision and plans. They check up on themselves and others. They become self-reliant and self-respecting. Their program is a success program. Failure and discouragement are infrequent. Pupils who fail in the ordinary class environment find themselves able to do things in the project set-up. It is no crime to consult with your neighbor or to help him. If you want to leave your seat to get information or do your task, it is quite all right. If you have a job, you're expected to do it. The class expects you to.

Glancing at the official statement of aims in the New York course of study you note at once many opportunities to realize them. Take, for instance, the *practical* aims. You can prepare imaginary trips or diaries, consult newspapers, interpret current events or follow shipping news.

On the *cultural* side you find a rich field for reading and study. You come naturally to use the library, the museum, the motion picture, encyclopedia, the magazine, and the newspaper.

On the *moral* side thru dramatization, pageantry and visual aids you come to know and respect people better, to realize your dependence on others, to recognize inevitable forces of nature and the work of a beneficent Providence together with the ingenuity, perseverance and heroism of man in overcoming obstacles.

The Activity Program is rich in opportunities to realize the *intellectual* aims. Systematic and recorded observation of facts and phenomena is the basis of scientific attitudes and habits. Dramatization and drawing, and lively discussion give play to the *imagination.* There is a constant demand for *reasoning* in solving the numerous problems that arise daily. Informal *memory* of the needed facts in problem solving and a construction together with the formal memorizing of certain necessary information thru games, flash cards, or other familiar drill devices provide for training of *memory.*

In the purposeful activities of a project curriculum are to be found strong motivation and much experience in research in the real arts of silent reading and study. And finally recreational interests in reading, hiking, travel, appreciation of natural beauty and places famous in history, art, or public interest and many other leisure activities are characteristic outcomes of vitalized geography teaching.

These are only a few of many possibilities to vitalize your geography teaching thru activities.

## PROJECT STEPS

The project procedure recommended to the teachers of the Summer Play Schools or Day Camps conducted last year by the Board of Education of the City of New York for organization of units of work is a good pattern for use in an Activity Program. Not all the steps need to be taken in every project or in the order listed, but all can be taken in some form. They do not represent any officially adopted procedure but an agreed pattern on which the Play School principals felt they could realize the objective which they themselves adopted.

Step 1. *Organization of project.* Allocation of problems and responsibilities to individuals and groups in conference period.

Step 2. *Excursions.* Seeing the activity in real life if possible or

vicariously thru visual aids, exhibits, museums, reading stories, etc.

Step 3. *Dramatization.* Participating in the activity thru "making believe." Building up emotional and motor reactions and attitudes especially thru folk songs and dances.

Step 4. *Research.* "Seeking the facts" and solutions of problems raised in the discussion or performance of the activities. Using the school and the public libraries. Consulting parents and others who may have reliable information.

Step 5. *Planning the details of the project.* Children sketch parts or draw up specifications. The purpose is to foresee the finished product or performance.

Step 6. *Construction or performance* in accordance with plans.

Step 7. *Pictorial representation.* Enrichment of the experience thru drawing of murals or friezes on panels to show evolution or selling.

Step 8. *Literary or grafic* representation to intensify experience. Compositions, reports, maps, grafs, or charts are utilized.

Step 9. *Constructive, socialized, orderly criticism* thruout the progress of the activity.

Step10. *Sharing the project* with other classes or groups by exhibits, demonstrations, assembly programs, or even community pageants.

# MEXICO: RURAL LIFE IN THE MOUNTAINS BETWEEN MEXICO D.F. AND ACAPULCO

BEN F. LEMERT AND ROSE V. LEMERT
Duke University

## THE COUNTRY

Upon the plateau of Mexico one sees farm dwellings built of adobe, bricks, or stone, with tile roofs and cement, tile or dirt floors. Little wood is used in the construction for the plateau is a dry-land region and earthy materials are the easiest obtainable. As the observer climbs over the slopes of Mount Ajusco to the southwest of Mexico, D.F. the scene changes. The slopes of the mountains obstruct the passing air currents, deflect them upward and thus receive more rainfall. Vegetation becomes denser and greener. Forests are on all sides. The people live in little valleys, on mountain slopes and on mountain tops. Their homes are similar to those already described in the eastern coastal sections. The houses are, however, built stronger and more resistent to the weather elements. In many places the nights are cool to cold.

**Agriculture.** Some of the valleys are several miles wide and the land is taken up by corn, wheat, barley, potatoes, beans, pineapples, and an additional variety of fruits and vegetables. One may purchase in the markets of Mexican cities almost any vegetable or fruit he may obtain in the United States and many others of which he knows little or nothing.

A frequent sight is a hut village in a little mountain valley, the floor of the valley and the slopes of the surrounding mountains covered with small, rectangular-shaped farms. Some of these farms literally hang upon the slopes. Others extend right over the crest of the range. Corn is the common product on the steep slopes. We have seen good corn growing at an elevation of more than 5,000 feet. Many of these fields are enclosed either by stone walls, barbed wire, or by fences made of miscellaneous sticks. The stone walls give a clue as to the nature of the soil. Where the walls are made of "niggerhead" or basaltic rock, the region is usually volcanic. Where made of limestone, this rock is usually found in abundance and may indicate uplift from the sea. If of sandstone, the soil more than likely is the result of disintegration of sedimentary formations. There are instances where points of fairly high elevation are cov-

ered by deep layers of coarse gravel. Such evidence points to the presence of rivers flowing over these regions long before they reached their present stage of erosion.

The mountain people keep goats, sheep, donkeys, cattle, hogs, and chickens. Dogs and cats are seen around every hut. The owners of these animals use the products they derive from them to make

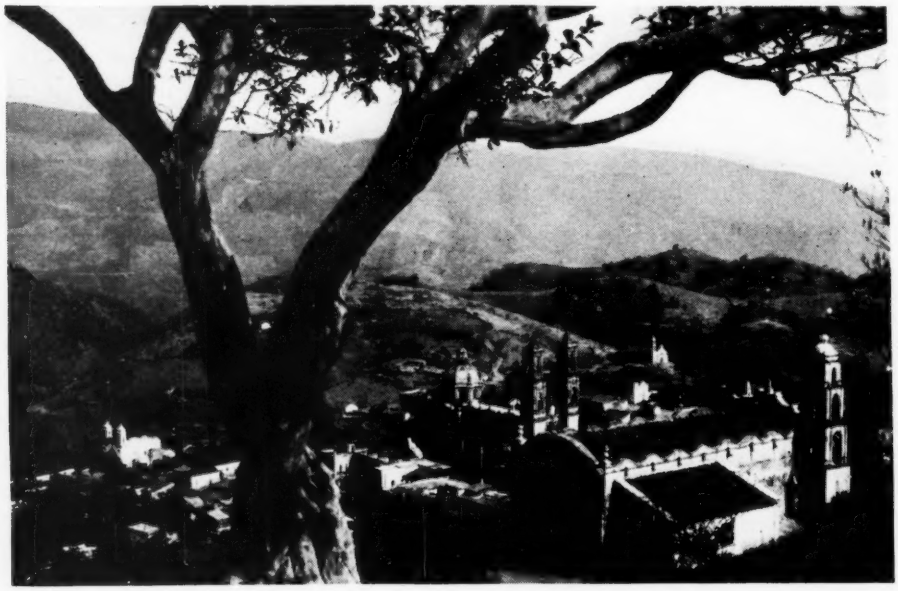

FIG. 1. The mountain town of Taxco reminds one of Toledo, Spain. Note the number of large churches. The surrounding mountains are also similar to Spanish scenes, their lack of vegetation denoting aridity.

clothing, harness and shoes. From their animals they also obtain meat, milk and eggs. The donkeys serve as carriers of loads while oxen provide the extra power needed to pull the plow or the cart. The surplus products from the fields, the gardens and the animals are taken to the nearest market where they may be bartered for other goods or may be converted into cash.

**Transportation.** It is a common sight along the road between Mexico, D.F. and Acapulco, to see hundreds of rural folk trudging along carrying their wares to market. Herds of donkeys carry the heavy burdens and sometimes the driver added to the load. Two women carry a large basket between them, the basket piled high with farm products. Others walk along with bundles or baskets bal-

anced upon their heads. Some even carry jars of liquid in this manner. Still others have baskets with legs attached, fastened to the human back somewhat like similar arrangements seen in parts of the mountains of Switzerland. These carriers are usually heavily laden. The legs of the basket serve as a base upon which to rest the load when the human carrier stops to rest. They also help him to

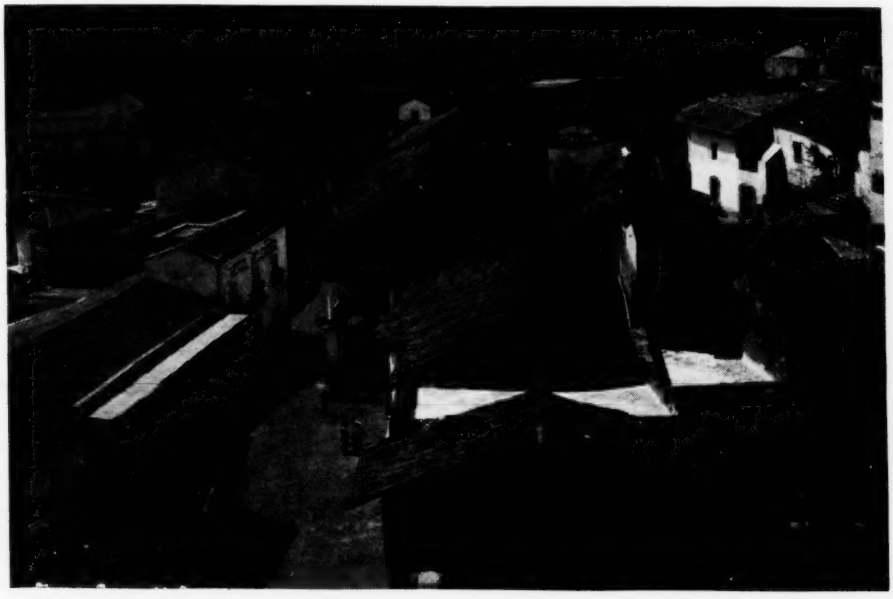

FIG. 2. The streets of the cities and towns are for the most part very narrow and rough.

adjust the load to his movements when he arises to continue the journey.

When an automobile approaches these farm people scatter from the road like a flock of chickens. They run for the ditches. Many climb clear out of the ditches upon the other side. They still fear this new implement of man's progress and distrust his ability to guide and control it. This may be fortunate for the autoist for his progress will be slow, indeed, once they feel assured he does not wish to hit them any more than they care to be struck. Mexican road laborers have already reached this stage of sophistication and sometimes must be fairly pushed out of the way.

## THE HUT VILLAGE

If a hut village contains a number of dwellings, usually one hut will have meat for sale. Another will offer bakery products,

and still a third display cigarettes, cheap cloth, and the red, green, and yellow beverages which are so popular with the inhabitants.

**The Meat Shop.** The hut village meatshop is a unique establishment. The proprietor, man or woman, is usually Indian. Large slabs of meat hang upon poles under the grass roof of a porch-like addition to the hut. Any sort of weighing instrument is lacking, altho the term kilo is frequently heard. The proprietor is well acquainted with the denominations of his country's currency. The prospective

FIG. 3. Except for the rock exposure in the upper center of this picture, the lighter patches on the mountain side are cultivated fields.

customer, unable to speak the Indian language, approaches the porch and looks over the pieces of meat. They are fresh for they have been killed early that day. He points to one piece and then points to a goat. The live representatives of the types of meat are always in sight somewhere nearby. If the butcher shakes his head, the customer points to a cow, a hog, or a sheep. In this way he finds out what kind of meat it is. Next he says he wants a kilo, or dos kilos or whatever amount he desires. The butcher pulls out a large knife and whacks off a piece of meat presumably having the desired weight or close to it. If the customer does not like the meat on display the butcher will go back into the hut and return shortly with other pieces of meat. These pieces he has been keeping cool by placing them in a porous jar. At intervals he splashes water over the outside of the jar and evaporation of this moisture cools the interior.

When the purchase is made, the meat seller hands his customer

the chunk of meat he has purchased. It is the customer's job to take it away as best he may for the idea of wrapping it seems never to have occurred to the merchant. If the customer is a native, he will be carrying a grass sack in which he always puts anything he has to carry. If the customer is a helpless foreigner from a distant land like the United States his first experience is to find himself with a piece of raw meat in his hands searching his mind as to just how he will handle it. His experience will teach him to provide himself with a grass bag at the first city market he encounters.

**The Bakery.** The bakery in the hut village is somewhat like the meatshop. The products are usually of poor quality. Bread in loaves like those in the United States is practically unobtainable in the rural sections of Mexico. The natives use white flour or whole wheat flour as they choose and bake it into small rolls or buns. Such articles displayed in the hut village are tough, heavy, and stale. Like most Mexican bread they are also partially sweetened which does not help the taste of such poor quality bread.

The price of either the bread or the meat is ridiculously low compared with similar value in the United States. Some of the buns are 5 centavos each, others two for 5 centavos.*

**The Tobacco and Beverage Shop.** There are always a few customers around the hut where cigarettes and drinks are sold. The cigarettes are made in Mexican factories and sell for from 5 to 20 centavos a package. The packages contain 18 to 20 cigarettes. The poor people in the country cannot often afford to pay twenty centavos for a package of cigarettes, hence the five centavo package is made to conform to their standard of living. The American hesitates to drink the green or red beverages which seem so popular with natives. However, if he knows enough to ask for limoncillo, he may obtain a glass of cool, clear liquid tasting somewhat like lemon pop. The lemon-flavor and odor is derived from a wild grass which is crushed to make this refreshing drink. The pink or red beverage is called jamaica, a concoction of water, sugar and a sort of Mexican mint. The green liquid consists of water, sugar and a small seed which gives it the flavor and color. Tepache, partly fermented pineapple juice, and horchata, cinnamon-flavored barley water, are also sometimes obtainable. At any place where the rural people of Mexico meet in

* A centavo is .28 of one United States penny. A pound of good meat costs about 20 centavos.

groups these beverages are as much in evidence as wine in Spain or beer in Germany. They are part of the life.

## THE PEOPLE

**Clothing.** The male inhabitants of the hut villages, or on the small farms, dress alike. A broad-brimmed, cone-shaped, crowned sombrero of straw, a cheap cotton shirt—once white—cheap cotton cloth or denim trousers, a wide sash of some kind of cotton cloth about the waist, with the feet bare or encased in grass or leather sandals constitutes the usual costume. A sarape of woven cloth thrown over one shoulder takes the place of a coat. This article of wearing apparel displays a wide variety of colors and sizes. That commonly seen is four or five feet long and 18 inches to two feet wide. The writers could not help mentally comparing this rather inefficient article of clothing with the useful poncho of the Uruguayan or the Argentine rural folks. Whereas the South American poncho consists of a woolen blanket, a hole cut in the middle that it may be slipped over the head, forming a complete protection against cold, wind or rain, the Mexican sarape seemed to leave much to be desired if used for such purposes. Perhaps the difference in the two articles is due to some extent to the fact that South Americans are usually much better off financially than are the Mexican natives. During rainy weather the rural people of Mexico wear rain protectors made of woven grass, the ends of the blades of grass protruding outward and hanging down giving the garment an outward appearance somewhat like the roofs of their huts. This grass device protects them from the rain like the feathers

FIG. 4. The center of this picture shows a patchwork of cultivated fields hanging on the mountain side. Cattle range the valley. The natives get their drinking water from the stream early in the morning. They wash their clothes in the stream during the day. Late in the afternoon they swim. Next morning the water, after having passed untouched all night is again cool and sweet for human consumption—if one has nothing else to drink.

protect the bird's back. If a man has just come in from the field, a large knife, straight or curved, hangs in a woven grass scabbard suspended from his shoulders. This is the machete with which he performs so many functions in his field.

The women of the country wear cheap cotton cloth waists, black skirts of the same material, their feet bare or in sandals and always a black cloth draped over the head and shoulders. This cloth protects the head from the sun during the day, and from the moisture in the air at night. The children's dress is similar to that of their parents except in the case of very young ones who go naked.

**Home Life.** The streets of these hut villages in the mountains, like the streets of most other centers of habitation in Mexico, were never laid out with regard to automobile traffic. If the visitor wishes to see more intimate features of the village life, he must leave his car and poke about on foot. Even then he feels much could be done to make it easier for the pedestrian. By looking in a doorway here and there one gets a glimpse of a housewife performing her domestic duties. He sees, for instance, that her kitchen consists of a room with a dirt floor, a platform of stone in one corner serving as the cookstove. On this stone platform is a fire and over the fire hangs a pot suspended from the roof by a wire or chain. The pot may be setting on a crude iron framework. Other pots of iron or clay are setting in the fire. If the señor is present, he may invite the stranger in to look around. Lucky is the visitor who finds the housewife cooking corn-on-the-cob. She places the ear of corn, husk and all in a pot of boiling water. When properly cooked the ear is handed to the visitor to eat. He husks the cooked ear and finds to his surprise the corn tastes far better than that to which he has been accustomed in the United States. If there is meat roasting over the fire, he will find the meat better also. Of course it is fresher meat than he has been accustomed to eating. Perhaps life in the country induces extra pangs of hunger about mealtime. Even the poor bread tastes better under such circumstances.

The room in which the visitor finds himself may not only serve as kitchen. It may be the one room of the hut where lives an entire family and often several dogs and cats. There may be a bed, a chair or two, a table and an oil lamp. However, when it comes to eating the meal, the chair and table may be forgotten entirely as the members of the family squat around the room, their backs to the wall, getting just as much nourishment from their food as if it were served on a silver tray.

# EL PASO—THE GATEWAY

SARAH LOIS GRIME
Texas College of Arts and Industries, Kingsville, Texas

Among the physiographic forms distributed over the surface of the earth, perhaps none has had a greater influence on the historic and economic development of the surrounding areas than passes. Passes have a tendency to retard, arrest, or deflect historic movements and the higher and more difficult the pass, the more effective the mountain barrier becomes. They are nature-made thorofares, traversed at various times by the animal trail followed by the native huntsman, later by the pack mule, the cart, or the wagon train, or perhaps, as in America, by the pony express or the stage coach carrying the mail, and last by the modern railroad. Such a pass is that thru the Southern Rockies at El Paso, Texas.

## PHYSIOGRAPHY

The mountains in the El Paso region extend northward, forming a rather direct line for a distance of 250 miles. These ranges, which are often referred to as the Trans-Pecos Mountains, are of the fault-block type. Most of the blocks are from three to ten miles wide and from 8,000 to 10,000 feet elevation. Between the ranges are wide, fertile valleys, some formed by stream erosion, and many others by debris washed down from the mountains by the torrential rains that are characteristic of areas of low precipitation.

Thru this broken surface, the Rio Grande passes from basin to basin in a series of gorges. Physiographers seem to be of the opinion that the river originally flowed into the northern part of the Mexican Plateau but was later diverted to the east by a lava dam across its channel. This obstruction forced the river to cut across the range at the southern end of the Franklin Mountains, developing the water gap thru which the Rio Grande now flows. This gap, which has an elevation of 3,760 feet, forms the lowest pass across the continental divide between the Isthmus of Tehuantepec and the Arctic Sea. In this mountain break lies the city of El Paso.

## HISTORIC IMPORTANCE

The region around El Paso had probably been occupied by the Pueblo Indians for centuries before Columbus discovered America. These people lived in comfortable houses, dressed in coarse cotton cloth which was produced in the neighborhood, and had an abun-

dance of corn and vegetables, the majority of which was grown under irrigation. Their village, Ysleta, was located twelve miles below the present site of El Paso. The Spaniards, who came to

FIG. 1. Map of the territory about El Paso. Courtesy, El Paso Chamber of Commerce.

occupy the region in the sixteenth century, brought sheep, cattle, and horses.

El Paso was one of the first, if not the first, geographical names applied to any part of Texas. On May 4, 1598, Onate, who may be regarded as the colonizer of New Mexico, found a ford on the river

and named it "El Paso del Rio." From that time on, this ford has been the main gateway from Old Mexico into New Mexico. During the Mexican War Colonel Doniphan invaded Mexico via El Paso and established there connection with Taylor's right wing. At a later period the pass played an important part in determining the boundary between the United States and Mexico. Because of the strategic importance of the pass, the town was alternately occupied by Confederate and Federal troops during the Civil War.

### TRADE AND TRANSPORTATION

The country surrounding the pass, both in the United States and in Mexico, has much mineral wealth. As early as 1858, the products of the mines, that were crudely worked in North Mexico, were brought to El Paso and exchanged for goods or money. Later, many of the minerals of Arizona and New Mexico found the same market.

After the development of the Santa Fe Trail, American commercial expansion found an outlet to the south. The wagon trains from the trade center at Santa Fe followed the course of the Rio Grande thru the pass into northern Mexico. In turn, the markets of Santa Fe were stocked with Spanish goods that came from the gulf ports of Mexico.

This trade became quite important. The annual value of the goods passing from Saint Louis to Chihuahua, Mexico, via "The Pass" at the time of the opening of the Mexican War, was estimated to be between $1,000,000 and $2,000,000. A duty of $500 was levied by Mexico on each wagonload of goods. Nor have the old Mexican centers and the old routes lost their power to attract. The railroad now follows the old Santa Fe Trail to the Rio Grande and then south to El Paso. This route, which has been of strategic and commercial importance since Coronado crossed the river on his expedition to the Santa Fe country in 1540, still handles much of our trade with Mexico.

Altho the north-south route was the only one of commercial importance in the early history of the region, it has not been able to maintain its supremacy. The westward movement and the settling of the Western States have caused the development of a number of other important routes. The low pass across the mountains has tended to focus these routes at El Paso. The city has become a natural concentrating and distributing point and an important railway center thru which a number of transcontinental railroads pass.

The modern city stands at the crossing of several of the oldest

highways established by white men on this continent. The route followed by the Spaniards from Chihuahua to the Red River went north thru "The Pass" to Santa Fe, then crossed east to the river. The early mail route established between San Antonio and El Paso was first used about 1850. Mail was carried by pack mule over the route made dangerous by the presence of the hostile Indians. Over the same route Santleben, a freighter, brought, on his last trip from Mexico via El Paso, $350,000 in Mexican silver and 40,000 pounds of copper, for which he received $10,750 in pay.

It is interesting to note how closely the modern railroads follow the paths of the early trails and how they also concentrate at the pass. Reference has already been made to one branch of the Santa Fe Railroad. This railroad makes a great bend south to the mountain gap at El Paso in order to make connections with the eastern roads and with the easy route over the Sierra Madre Plateau. This is the same route followed by Cook's wagon trains in 1846. The Southern Pacific Railway follows the early route, known as the Gila Trail, to the mountain gap at El Paso, on thru the grass highlands of Central Texas, making direct connection with the eastern roads around the southern end of the Appalachians. It is noticeable that this road largely follows the 33° N. parallel but dips about one degree in order to go thru the pass.

## THE CITY

Due to the arid nature of the country, the area remained in ranch lands for many years, and the gap formed the principal trade route between Old and New Mexico. El Paso was Mexican. Not until the entrance of the first railway train on May 25, 1881, did the modern growth of the city begin. In 1858 El Paso was a small, adobe hamlet of about 300 people. There was not a railroad nor a telegraph station within a thousand miles. Merchandise and supplies were brought either from Saint Louis (1600 miles) or Port Lavaca (900 miles) by pack animal or wagon. In 1863, the city became the permanent residence of a United States Collector of Customs and later obtained a fine Government building.

Contrasted with the fact that El Paso lies almost in the exact center of the "Great American Desert," is the more important fact that it is also located in almost the exact center of the Rio Grande Reclamation Project. This assures to it an abundance of water, both from the Rio Grande and from the artesian basin surrounding the city. Thus it has become the metropolis of the Trans-Pecos country and boasts that it is the largest city within a radius of 500 miles and

that it is the greatest railway center west of the 100° meridian.

The situation of the city of El Paso is delightful. It is located in a fertile valley from one to three miles wide and about forty miles long. A circle of mountains on the north and west tends to neutralize the cold winds from the north. The predominant note in the climate is sunshine. In fact the sun shines in this region 331 days, on the average, a year. The rainfall is light, averaging less than ten inches

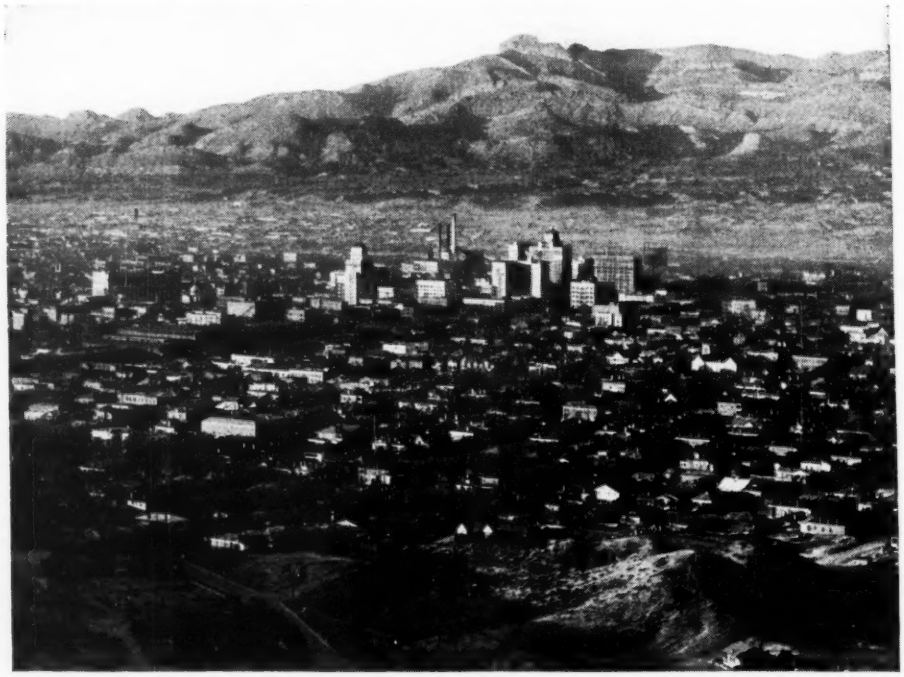

FIG. 2. A view of the city of El Paso in its natural setting. The mountains in the distance are in Mexico. Courtesy, El Paso Chamber of Commerce.

a year, and the percentage of humidity is low (about forty per cent). The color tone of the landscapes is taken largely from the arid lands and arid plant life. The irrigated oases, however, relieve the monotony of desert colors and the surrounding hills are high enough to have distinct zones of vegetation. Coniferous forests cover the upper slopes. Surrounded by these conditions, the traveler finds a modern city of 102,421 population. As in its earlier modern history, El Paso continues to be a center of transportation, commerce, and industry.

Mining continues to be the most important industry of the surrounding region and the smelting and refining of copper is one of

the major types of manufacturing. Among the largest manufactures are wooden boxes and the products of the cotton mills. The El Paso Chamber of Commerce lists 209 separate factories.

The contrast is great between the condition of the region at the time of the arrival of the Spaniards and this modern city surrounded by the fertile, irrigated acres that one sees today. It is probable that no one thing has had a greater influence on the location and growth of the city of El Paso than has the comparatively insignificant gap cut by the Rio Grande thru the Southern Rockies.

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## BLACKBOARD WALL MAPS

GEORGE T. RENNER
George Washington University

A large part of geography teaching is, in the very nature of the subject, directed toward answering the following three questions:

Where is it?
What is its extent?
With what may it be correlated?

In order to guide a class thru the various steps in answering these questions, however, constant recourse must be had to either atlas or wall maps.

An atlas in the hands of each pupil is enormously effective if the teacher be aware of its potentialities, but such equipment is rarely available for elementary or high school classes. Many universities, indeed, regard the individual atlas as beyond the realm of feasibility. To accomplish really effective geography teaching, therefore, a considerable number of well chosen wall maps are requisite.

Some of the most marked advances in the teaching of geography during recent years are the results of the increased use of wall maps. A few decades ago few wall maps were employed in teaching and those which were used were small, illegible at a distance, and restricted in types of data which they portrayed.

The first two decades of the twentieth century, however, saw a surprising evolution in the character and variety of the classroom map. Relief, soil, vegetation, climatic factors, and other elements of the natural environment were successfully portrayed. Simul-

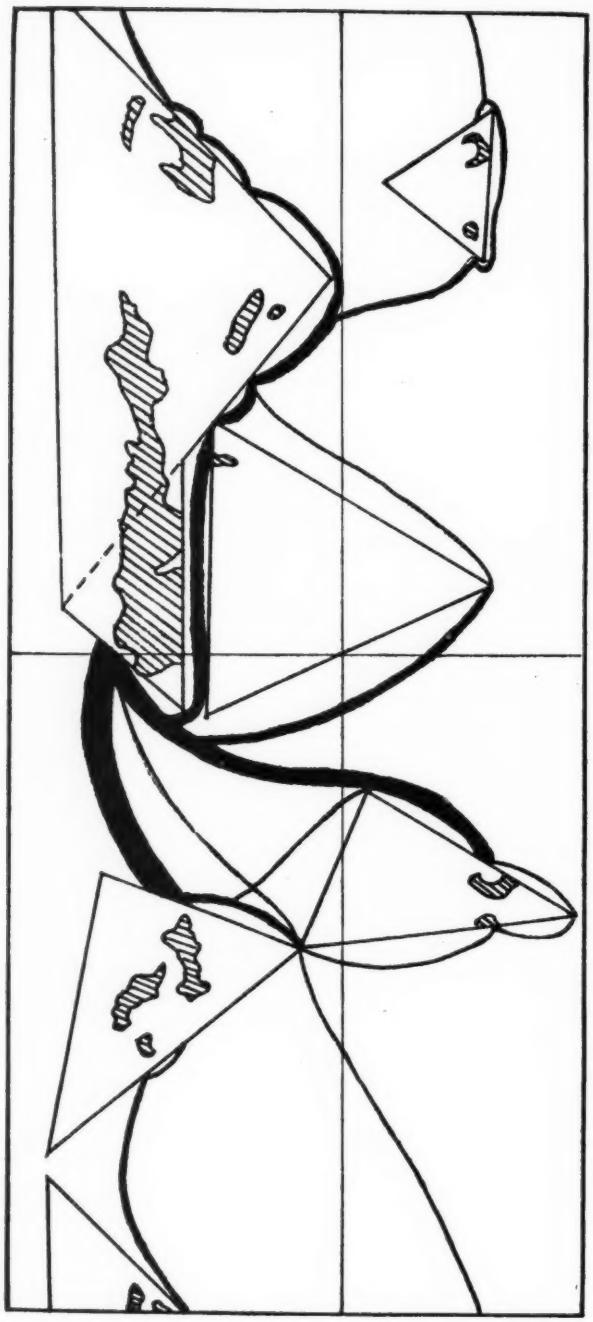
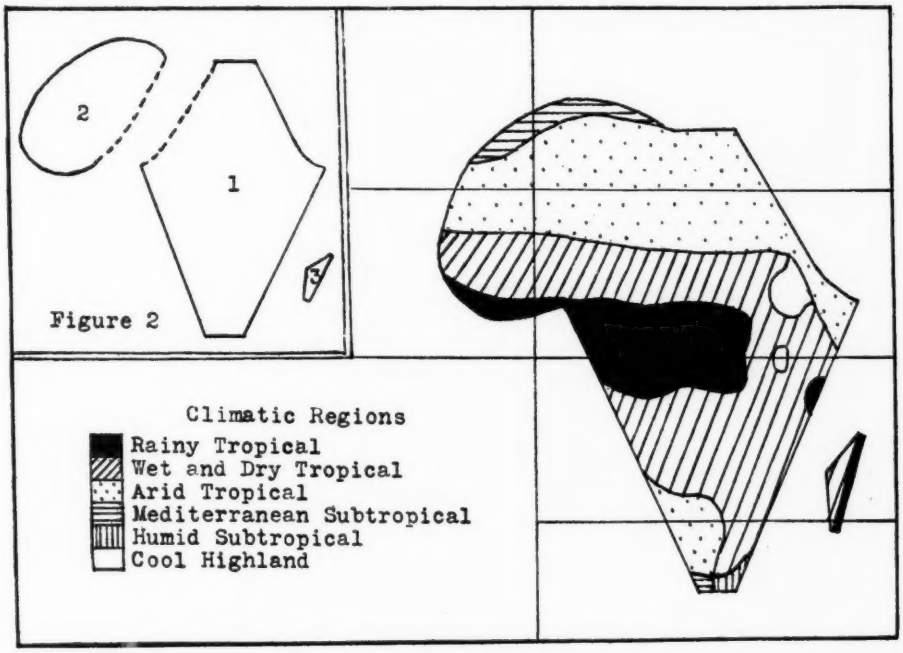


FIG. 1. Map of the world showing major wheat producing areas and the chief world trade routes

taneously, maps were developed to present many elements of the cultural landscape, such as population density, political division, transportation pattern, economic production, and the flow of trade.

In certain measure, the development of the school wall map was a response to the growing desire for such aids to teaching. The presence of improved maps upon the market tended, in turn, to




FIGS. 2 and 3. Climatic Regions of Africa

greatly stimulate that demand. At all events, by the end of the second decade of the present century, most progressive schools had come to include in their annual budget an allowance for the purchase of wall maps.

## MAP BUDGETS AND THE "DEPRESSION"

Since the onslaught of the present economic depression, budget allowances for maps and other equipment have dwindled rapidly. In many instances they have disappeared altogether under the competition of more insistent needs.

Today, thousands of schoolrooms possess only a few wall maps, and in all too many instances none at all are in evidence. In most of even the best equipped schools, no new purchases have been made since 1929, despite their stocks having been steadily depleted thru wear and tear.

Great numbers of teachers, therefore, face the discouraging reality of having few or no wall maps to aid in teaching geography. Moreover, this condition is likely to continue for several years. Deprived of such working tools, the teacher must rely upon his powers of verbal description, or upon his ability to improvise the necessary maps.

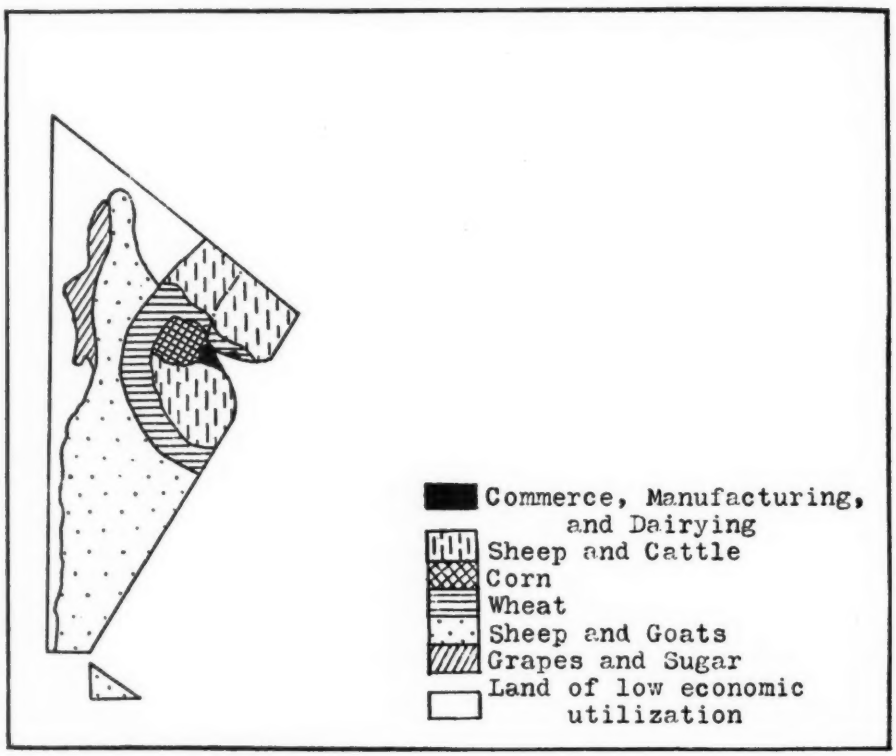



FIG. 4. Economic Regions of Argentina and Uruguay

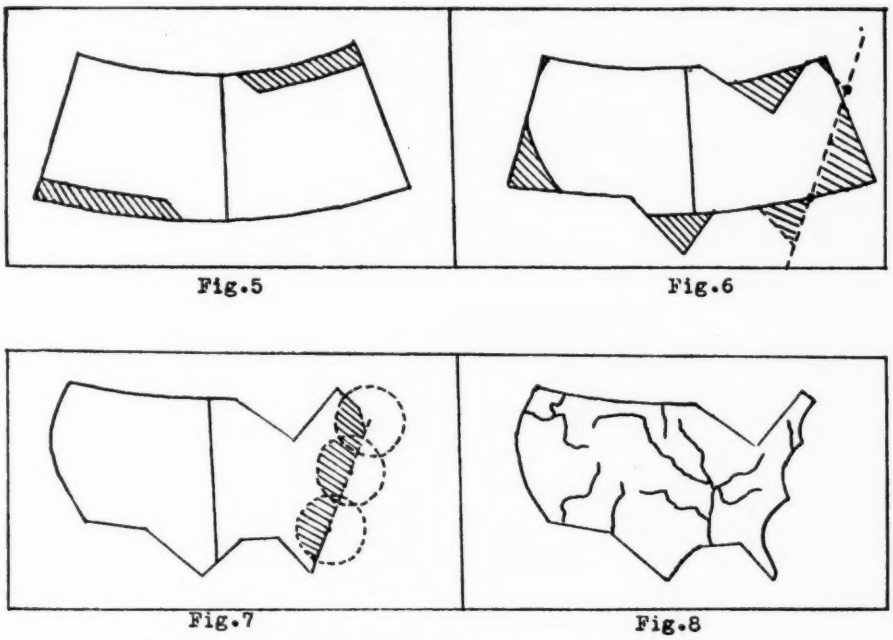
## IMPROVISED WALL MAPS

If a grid of parallels and meridians be laid off on the blackboard or a large piece of paper, maps accurate enough for any class use may be drawn by even the amateur, but this is laborious and time consuming. What is wanted is a short-cut device for producing maps in front of a class, rapidly enough that the group discussion will not be interrupted.

Few teachers, however, are able to draw a map accurately enough to produce a recognizable product, but if the outline of a country or other desired area be conventionalized to where it be-

comes a cartogram rather than a map, it can be reproduced by even the most inept. Cartograms when once learned can be drawn upon the blackboard as easily as simple grafs, and yet they preserve many of the virtues of true maps.

As an example, a cartogram of the world is presented in Fig. 1. In this instance, it is used as a vehicle for showing wheat producing




FIGS. 5, 6, 7, 8. Four steps in the construction of a cartogram of the United States

regions and major world trade routes. In representing a continent, somewhat greater accuracy may be employed than for the world. Fig. 2 shows the three elements in constructing an African cartogram. Fig. 3 shows the finished product upon which are portrayed the major climatic regions of the continent.

Depicting an individual country is likewise a simple matter. Fig. 4 is a highly conventionalized outline of Argentina. Upon this is shown in diagrammatic fashion the economic regions of that country. This schematic map, in spite of its shortcomings, conveys a considerable number of ideas, and after all, gives an unforgettable picture of the country.

Probably the map most frequently needed will be that of the United States, Figures 5, 6, 7, and 8 show the several steps in the construction of a cartogram for that country. When these three

steps are mastered the map-like sketch may be reproduced with ease.

Other blackboard cartograms can be worked out by the teacher for any continent, country, or province desired by the teacher.

### VALUE OF CONVENTIONALIZED WALL MAPS

There are always two standards of measurement to apply to any wall map, one cartographic and the other pedagogic. To the cartographer, the measures of a map's excellence are accuracy and legibility, quality of engraving and printing, and veracity of area, scale, and form. To the teacher, however, the measure of a map's worth are visibility, simplicity, and the usability of the data portrayed.

Blackboard wall maps of the kind described are homely in appearance but they possess many real virtues. They may be produced almost instantaneously, they can be made to show a wide variety of data, and they cost nothing. Despite their crudeness, they do enable the teacher to show world relations and relative geographic location within a country or province. Moreover they are an excellent vehicle for teaching the concept of area, and can be made to show distribution almost as well as true maps.

It may be argued that such conventionalized sketches will give the pupils erroneous pictures of geographic form and shape. This may conceivably be true of elementary pupils, but even if true, such pictures are preferable to none at all, or to the vague inchoate notions derived from abstract description and discussion. It does not, however, hold true for advanced pupils who can readily appreciate the nature of the symbols used.

The constant use of blackboard maps will provide a class with a rich assortment of grafic materials. Several such sketches, side by side, showing different items, therefore, allow the class to make important correlations and enable the teacher to develop an appreciation of those causal relationships which is after all the heart of modern geography teaching.

# LABRADOR CURRENT DOES NOT REACH THE UNITED STATES COAST

P. E. CHURCH
University of Washington, Seattle, Washington

In the past few years a number of textbooks on geography have been published by prominent authors who assert that the Labrador Current flows along the coasts of Nova Scotia and New England. This is one case in which an hypothetical idea has persisted in the minds of many even after it has been adequately disproved.

A number of carefully drawn conclusions in regard to the course and extent of the Labrador Current have been published in recent years. All have been based on actual observations from oceanographic expeditions which have made detailed studies of the area involved. The first to doubt the idea of the presence of the Labrador Current as far south as the New England coast was Verrill[1] who stated that the actual temperatures of the deep strata of the Gulf of Maine did not suggest Labrador water there. Later, Schott[2] found no dominant set of the water to the southwest along Nova Scotia. The reports based on the cruises of the International Ice Patrol,[3] from 1920 to the present, all point out the fact that the Labrador Current does not reach the Gulf of Maine even tho the cruises are maintained at a time of the year when the flow is greatest in volume and the temperature the lowest. Johnston[4] definitely states that "as a stream, Labrador water never gets west of the Grand Bank." Jenkins[5] says "the Labrador Current coming from the northwest strikes the coast of Newfoundland, flows over the easterly part of the Grand Bank and ends up in the Gulf Stream east of 50° W. Long., so that its waters do not wash the east coast of the United States." Bigelow,[6] in his monumental discussion of the Gulf of Maine, concludes that, "In short no actual evidence of such a current [Labrador] is forthcoming from recent investigations, but the reverse. I have no hesitation, therefore, in definitely asserting that the Labrador Current does not reach, much less skirt, the coast of North America, from Nova Scotia southward, as a regular event, corroborating Jenkins'[5] statement that it does not reach the coast of the United States. Consequently this is not the direct source of the cold current that reaches the Gulf of Maine from the east. If overflows of the Labrador Current do take place they are of such rare occurrence that no event of this sort has yet come under direct scientific observation."

The Labrador Current can be detected easily, like other oceanic currents, by temperature and salinity conditions. In addition, icebergs are carried along with the flow in spring and early summer. Using these as a criterion for determining the path of the Labrador Current, Smith[7] has published a number of charts of which the paths of icebergs (Fig. 97), the drift-tracks of icebergs 1900-1930 (Fig. 102), and thirty years of icebergs (Fig. 107) are the most important in showing the main movements and locations of all the icebergs observed during that period. He states "in fact, the compilation of the individual berg drifts in the area south of the Tail of the Grand Bank constitute the most positive evidence to refute the old belief that the Labrador Current flowed southward along the United States coast."

In the light of the conclusions of these various authorities it would be well to correct our ideas about the position and flow of the Labrador Current.

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# A LESSON WITH WORLD MAPS

DOUGLAS C. RIDGLEY
Clark University

The globe is the best representation of the earth to show the true form of the earth, the relative sizes of the continents, the true shapes of the continents, and the directions of the continents from each other on the curved surface of the earth. It is not possible, however, to show on the surface of a globe the many detailed items of information that we wish to represent. If this were attempted, the globes would be so large, so numerous, and so expensive to manufacture that we would soon discover that the task is impossible.

Maps, then, become the most convenient means of representing the earth's surface as a whole or in its many parts. In using maps, we should remember that each map represents a *curved* surface, not a flat surface like the map itself. Maps can be classified and stored on shelves or on rollers as readily as books and magazines are stored in a library.

World maps represent the entire earth's surface or nearly all of the earth's surface, including all of the inhabited continents and nearly all of the oceans. World maps are to be used and interpreted in relation to the globe. Unless we compare the continents and oceans as represented on the world maps with the continents and oceans as represented on the globe, we do not get an accurate idea of the shapes and relative sizes of the continents. Shapes and sizes of areas are correctly represented on the globe which has the same form as the real earth. On world maps, shapes and sizes are somewhat distorted, sometimes greatly distorted, because it is impossible to represent, with complete accuracy the shapes and sizes of continents which *really* exist only on a spherical surface, by making maps on a flat surface. Yet our flat maps in books, in atlases, and on wall maps are necessary for a study of geography and history.

Since our world maps cannot be exact representations of the real earth's surface, we need many times to compare world maps with the globe. Place before you a six-inch globe or a larger one, and the different kinds of world maps such as wall maps and those found in geography books and atlases.

1. On the globe, find the Equator. Study the lines for the parallels, and meridians. Note the simplicity of arrangement, their direction, and their frequency.

2. Among the world maps, find one drawn on Mercator's projec-

tion. The parallels are straight horizontal lines, all parallel to the Equator and to each other, and all are of the same length. On the Mercator projection, parallels are drawn farther apart as distance from the Equator increases. The meridians are shown as straight vertical lines, parallel to each other, and the same distance apart. On a map drawn on this projection directions are easily found, because directions are shown along a straight line on the map. For this reason Mercator's projection is of special value to ships at sea. Shapes and sizes of land areas are not well shown on the Mercator map because, as we move away from the Equator, the distance between parallels on the map increases, while on the globe and on the real earth distance between parallels is always the same; and meridians on the Mercator map are shown the same distance apart, while on the globe and on the real earth they are farthest apart at the Equator and converge, meeting at the poles. The Mercator world map exaggerates greatly the size of areas in high latitudes. On your Mercator map compare, as to size, Greenland and Australia; Greenland and South America. Make the same comparison on the globe. Turn to the statistical tables in the appendix of a geography and find the *real* areas in square miles for Greenland, Australia, and South America. The Mercator world map has been widely used, and pupils should learn how to interpret it in terms of the globe.

3. Among the world maps find one or two or three kinds on which the Equator and parallels are straight horizontal lines, parallel with each other, and on which the meridians are curved lines, the curvature increasing away from the center of the map. These maps may be drawn on several map projections—Van der Grinten's projection, homolographic projection, homolosine projection, or other projections. Study these maps carefully, and compare Greenland, Australia, and South America with each other on the different world maps and on the globe. Study especially the shapes and sizes of regions near the margins of the world maps and compare them with the shapes and sizes of the same regions on the globe.

4. Remember that world maps are among the most useful symbols of the *real* earth's surface in the study of geography and history. Learn to use maps frequently as you read books or current news. Think of maps as representations of a *real earth,* 8000 miles in diameter, 25,000 miles in circumference, the home of two billions of *real* people living on *real* plains, plateaus, and mountains wherever men can secure material for food, clothing, and shelter.

5. Study the maps of continents and of countries with full ap-

preciation that these useful symbols represent *real* portions of a *real* earth.

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## A FEW SUGGESTIONS IN TEACHING HIGH SCHOOL ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY

RUSSELL L. PACKARD
Concord State Teachers College, Athens, West Virginia

A few studies and investigations have been made in the past several years relative to the status of geography in the secondary or high schools of the United States. In brief the findings indicate that: (1) Geography has not found a wholesome and firm place in the high school, as far as general practice is concerned. (2) Most high school teachers of geography are not especially prepared to teach this field. (3) Many of the best curriculum specialists and other educational leaders favor more and better geography for this school level. With these findings in mind the writer wishes to present a few suggestions which might help teachers of high school geography to render a greater service.

In our secondary training school this semester a course is being offered in Economic Geography. The students in training, work in harmony with the critic teacher and the head of the department of geography, and thus there is a definite tie-up between the training school and the college proper. The college library is also at the disposal of the training teachers, the critic teacher, the high school pupils, and the head of the department in the college. With this set-up it has been possible to have good textbooks, reference books, current magazines, and newspapers at the disposal of the pupils and teachers in this subject.

Some of the special phases of this semester's work are as follows:

1. Every student in the class is writing to some city of importance in the United States for recent literature bearing upon that city's present condition and make-up. The student serves as a secretary for the class in writing the secretary of the chamber of commerce of the city assigned to him. The critic teacher has given a few general suggestions to the students in the class as to what to write in these letters which they hope will bring new and up-to-date information. The material, when it all arrives, will be assembled, organized, and filed away. As the material is needed it will be issued

under controlled conditions in an effort to keep it intact for future use. Some students will write papers on this material while others will give oral reports on it.

2. The students are also writing business concerns in different parts of the country for material displays—showing the evolution of the product or products from the raw material to the finished stage. Many of these displays have already arrived. They also will be assembled, organized, and filed away for use at the proper time.

3. One of the students in the class has volunteered to trace a large map of the United States on a piece of card-board. The plan to be used is to have the class study several products during the week up to Friday, and then on that day the students spend most of the time placing small specimens of products on the large map before them. This constitutes a very effective laboratory exercise, with all pupils participating. Before a product is placed on the map the class decides where it should be put and why it should be put in that or those places. Interesting discussions have grown out of the decision of where the products should be placed on the map. This plan is developing an "accumulated map" of the leading products found in the United States. The information used in developing this map comes from the sources previously mentioned; namely, text-books, reference books, current magazines, newspapers, reports from chambers of commerce, reports from business concerns, and others.

4. In addition to the "cumulated map" each student is making a scrapbook from materials gathered by the class as a whole, or by themselves individually. Also a notebook is kept by each individual where a record is kept of the leading projects, materials, and facts developed in the study of the semester's work.

The students appear to be greatly interested in this general activity and find it far better than the usual plan of question and answer procedure developed from studying a single textbook. The latter plan is commonly found in the high schools of the United States because teachers are not trained well enough to do much more than that.

# EDITORIAL NOTES AND NEWS

A forward step is expected to result from the fact that instructors of economic geography must now pass an examination in economic geography before being granted a license to teach that subject in the high schools of New York City. The first of these examinations was conducted last May by the Board of Education and fifty teachers were certificated and appointed to teach geography beginning in September. The special preparation that geography teachers are now expected to have places the field of geography on the same plane as the other high school subjects.

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A map of the U. S. recently issued by the U. S. Department of Agriculture shows that soybeans are in general adapted to areas east of the ninety-ninth meridian. Fortunately, last year's crop was unusually heavy. Hence, their use as a supplementary hay and pasture crop will help solve the emergency feed problem arising from the shortage of other forage seeds. Soybeans are rarely damaged by diseases and insects, are resistant to drought and excess moisture and are sown alone or planted with corn, cowpeas, sorghums, Sudan grass, and other crops.

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The second general assembly of the Pan-American Institute of Geography and History was held in Washington, D.C., October 14-19. In connection with the meeting of the Institute, Col. Lawrence Martin of the Division of Maps of the Library of Congress prepared an exhibit consisting of about 200 Hispanic-American maps, atlases, geographies, globes and portraits. These were on exhibition in the Library of Congress. Colonel Martin and his staff also prepared a descriptive catalog of these maps, charts, etc., which was distributed to the delegates and other guests attending the Institute. R.H.W.

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We "take off our hats" and extend our congratulations to the Florida State Council of Geography Teachers for its very practical and constructive work. The Council has just issued a course of study in geography for grades four to seven. Copies may be obtained from M. Luther King, Corresponding Secretary, P.O. Box 291, Milton, Florida, at the nominal cost of sixty cents.

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According to a release from the Department of the Interior, September 20, 1935, the total production of electricity in the United States in 1934 was 91,150,000,000 kilowatt-hours. Waterpower produced 34,058,000,000 kilowatt-hours or 37.4 per cent, while the remainder came from the use of fuels. Of the total produced by the use of fuels, 80.2 per cent was produced with coal, 13.1 per cent with gas, 6.4 per cent with oil, and 0.3 with wood. At the average fuel rates shown, one ton of coal as utilized by electric public utilities in 1934 was equivalent to 3.85 barrels (42 gallons a barrel) of oil or 23,100 cubic feet of gas.

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The only remaining herd of native caribou in the United States is ranging in a State wild-life refuge located north of Upper Red Lake, Minnesota. It is estimated that a dozen animals constitute the herd of this woodland species of caribou that once ranged our northern states from coast to coast.

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According to an estimate made by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, farm population in the United States on January 15, 1935, was 32,779,000. This was a net

gain of 270,000 over 1934, slightly greater than the increase of 1934 over 1933. These net gains were less than the surplus of births over deaths among the farm population, showing that some city people are still going back to the farm. These gains are reduced, however, by the fact that net migrations from farms to cities, towns and villages were 227,000 in 1933 and 211,000 in 1934. Nevertheless, the upward trend in farm population since the depression set in has resulted in an all-time high record for farm population in the United States.

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The high tides of the Bay of Fundy are to be utilized in a hydro-electric power project at Eastport, Maine. This government project is known as the Quoddy project. As the tides sweep up Passamaquoddy Bay into Cobscook Bay, five dams will store the water over an area of about forty square miles. Generators totaling 200,000 horsepower will be installed at these dams. An auxiliary project, Haycock Reservoir, thirteen miles away, will store sea water to supply power during slack periods at the Quoddy plants whose power would otherwise vary due to daily and seasonal tidal irregularities. A 300 horsepower tide-water generator is operated at the Avonmouth Docks on the Severn River at Bristol, England, which is a combination hydro and steam generator.

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According to Mineral Trade Notes, Sept. 30, 1935, production of magnesium in the United States is increasing rapidly. In 1934, sales of new magnesium ingot and stick jumped to 4,249,838 pounds, compared with 1,434,893 pounds in 1933 and a previous maximum of 908,351 pounds in 1929. This output of primary magnesium is obtained from magnesium chloride recovered as a joint product of the salt wells near Midland, Michigan. Other nations planning or engaged in extensive commercial production of magnesium are Germany, France, U.S.S.R., and the United Kingdom. The metal is used very largely in the aircraft industry. Other issues of Mineral Trade Notes point to Germany's interest in the utilization of scrap iron in steel production owing to Germany's very limited iron ore reserves, and to the growing use of aluminum coated steel as a tin substitute. The most optimistic reports cannot see in Germany's potential iron ores more than one-fifth their needs. Since efforts are being made to make Germany as nearly self-sufficient as possible, the increased use of scrap iron will materially help make up for their deficiency in ores. Tin which must be imported in Germany may, at least as far as cans are concerned, be replaced by aluminum, in which production Germany is intensely interested even tho it must import the ores. The progress in the use of aluminum cans may be noted from the fact that the Norwegian fish-canning industry used ten million rolled aluminum containers in 1934 compared with two million in 1933.

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One of the new government projects will develop a two hundred mile sea level ship canal across Florida. The proposed route follows the St. Johns-Oklawaha and Withlacoochee rivers necessitating about one hundred miles of digging. It will cut about 400 miles from the distance between the Atlantic and Gulf and eliminate crossing the treacherous Florida Straits where the S.S. *Dixie* grounded on Labor Day.

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It is rumored that a process has been discovered at Bloomington, Indiana, by which limestone can be impregnated with color to a depth of one-quarter to one-half an inch. After polishing, the stone will be usable for interior decorating. It is purported to be fade-proof.

# GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

Lucia Harrison. **Daylight, Twilight, Darkness and Time.** 216 pp. Illustrated. Silver, Burdett and Co., New York. 1935. $1.24.

This small book covers the material which its title suggests. It is divided into three parts: I. Latitude and Human Affairs, II. Computing Sun Behavior from Position in Latitude, and III. Longtitude and Human Affairs. As these headings suggest, the treatment is geographic thruout, making this book different in its outlook than the average treatment of the phase of the subject commonly spoken of as "mathematical geography." With the emphasis as it is, it would seem that this publication should be in the hands of all teachers of geography, whatever the level of instruction, since a functioning knowledge of "sun behavior" would appear to be a prerequisite to a mastery of geographic understanding.

L. H. HALVERSON

*Northern State Teachers College*
*Marquette, Michigan*

John W. Coulter. **Land Utilization in the Hawaiian Islands.** 140 pp. Illustrated. University of Hawaii Research Publications, Honolulu. 1933.

Following a preliminary chapter on "Environment and Population," the author passes in review, as it were, the principal Hawaiian land uses—sugar, pineapples, pasture, forest, etc., and inspects them from the geographical point of view. A later chapter considers the non-environmental aspects of the matter while in the final chapter major conclusions are categorically stated. The bulletin loses much of its possible value to geographers thru loose organization of material: the author has not strictly adhered to the organization as indicated by the chapter headings. Especially is this true of the earlier chapters wherein the reader is likely to become bewildered by the lack of clear-cut statement. A notable feature of the work is the map series in Chapter III, in which the land utilization for each of the eight main islands is represented as of 1906 and 1930. Such a series of maps proves to be so revealing that the author is well repaid for the vast amount of work required in their preparation. That the islands lack the homogeneity of environment usually attributed to them and that much sub-marginal land is used for the primary products are two of the major conclusions amply supported by evidence thruout the volume.

RALPH H. BROWN

*University of Minnesota*

Preston E. James. **An Outline of Geography.** 490 pp. 182 Figs. (many maps) and 24 plates (maps, partly colored); bibliography, index. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1935. $3.50.

This book is a serious attempt by a Professor of Geography at the University of Michigan to describe the world systematically. It is based on mimeographed material, which with supplementary readings and laboratory work, has been used for some years successfully with beginning students in geography at the University of Michigan.

Dr. James has written this book with a background of extensive field investigations ranging from Brazil to New England, with an exceptional familiarity with French and German geographic literature and with apparently a firm determination to advance the science of geography by systematizing and limiting it.

The bulk of the book consists of logical accounts of each of eight types of regions, the dry lands, tropical forests, Mediterranean scrub, midlatitude mixed forests, grasslands, boreal forests, polar lands, and mountainous areas. Each of these "groups" of

lands is discussed under the following outline: The Fundament (vegetation and climate), Surface Features (landforms, surface configuration, distribution of surface features, drainage, soils), Occupance (occupance by native cultures, occupance by occidental cultures), Conclusion. The conclusions are careful summaries a page or two in length which will be especially welcomed by teachers of elementary and high school geography and by college students.

The topics discussed in the appendices (80 pp.) are almost essential to the understanding of the text, and apparently are intended to be used before the rest of the book is undertaken, or at least, during the early part of the course. They present summaries of physical geography under the titles, The Atmosphere, The Lithosphere, The Hydrosphere, and Statistics.

Many of the maps are original. The numerous physiographic diagrams by Raisz are noteworthy, as are the new colored maps of vegetation types.

This "beginning, in English at least, of a well-ordered and systematic geography," this "description and interpretation of the face of the earth," this discussion of "influences only insofar as they affect the distribution of *things*" will be of wide interest to those concerned with the scope of geography. Many teachers will be helped by "the new point of view" and will welcome the factual materials not readily available elsewhere, and will enjoy many of the descriptions, some of which are superbly done.

STEPHEN S. VISHER

*Indiana University*

Samuel Van Valkenburg and Ellsworth Huntington. **Europe.** 651 pp. Illustrated. John Wiley & Sons, New York. 1935. $4.50.

This text consists of two parts. Part I contains seventeen chapters (216 pages) and discusses general conditions in the continent, such as Climate, Soils, Land Utilization, Manufacturing, Racial Characteristics, and Distribution of Population; Part II, thirty one chapters (417 pages) is concerned with the individual countries. The two parts provide ample material for a year's work, but the authors have indicated sections and chapters which may be omitted if the course is given for only one-half year.

The text is a combination of chorography, natural-natural relationships; and cultural-natural relationships. This combination is obtained by weaving into the bibliographical and statistical materials used the extensive personal observations of the authors. The student is thus given a knowledge of, and is guided into, an understanding of the geographic landscapes of areas and countries.

In addition to the reading matter the text contains an abundance of other helpful materials. Conspicuous are, bar grafs of commerce, important cities by countries with populations, maps and grafs showing various marked conditions and relationships, an English bibliography, and a post-war foreign bibliography.

The work might enjoy a wider use if it were reduced in size and cost. Part I, Europe as a Whole, with some regional studies to illustrate effects and relationships of general conditions in the continent might well serve as a one semester general cultural course for underclassmen. Part II, The Individual Countries is more to be desired for upper class and graduate students.

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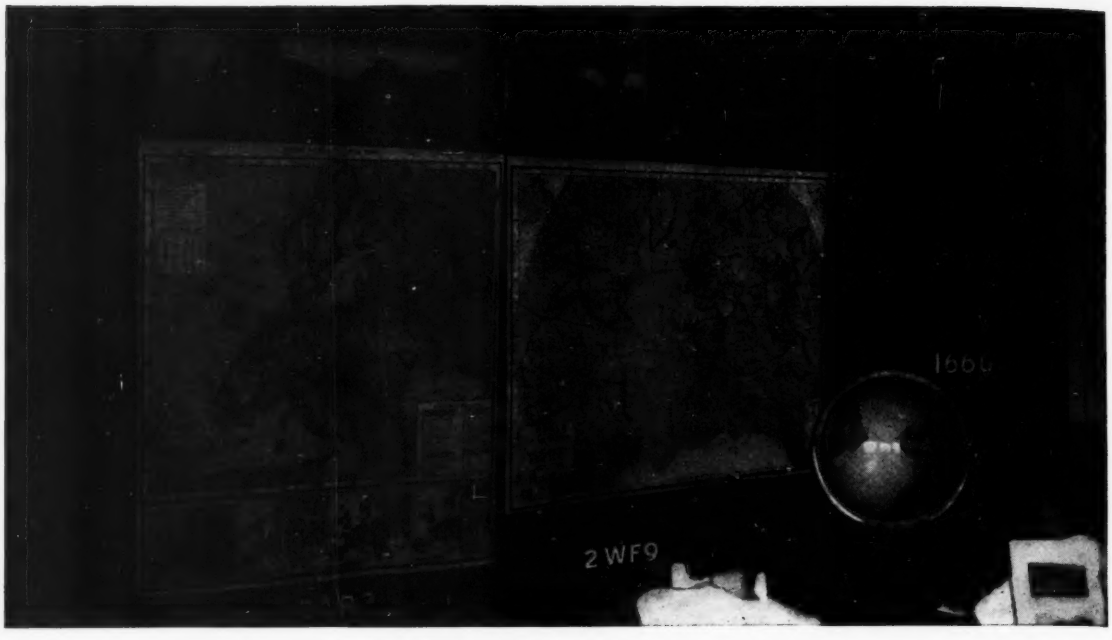


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Miscellaneous Series No. 1 (1934 Edition). **Supplement to Port and Terminal Charges at United States Ports.** 115 pp. The Board of Engineers for Rivers and Harbors, War Dept. Supt. of Documents, Wash., D.C. 1935. 20 cents.

Supplement of 1934 edition of Miscellaneous Series No. 1, bringing information up to date as of January 1, 1935.

Clarence Fielden Jones. **Economic Geography.** 448 pp. Illustrated. Henry Holt and Co., N.Y. 1935

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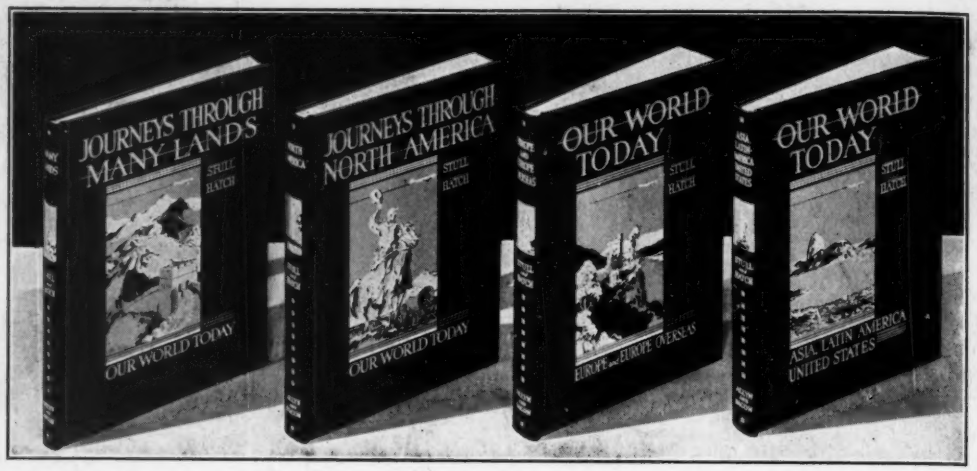


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